NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION IN FIRST IMPRESSION FORMATION: THE RELATIONSHIP OF PROXEMICS AND KINESICS TO INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTION PROCESSES IN THE U. S. NAVY

Arthur Walter Wittig

THESIS

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AND KINESICS TO INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTION
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The thesis concludes that managers may be able to form more accurate first impressions by using the information provided.

20.

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Nonverbal Communication in First Impression Formation: The Relationship of Proxemics and Kinesics to Interpersonal Perception Processes in the U. S. Navy

by

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I. INTRODUCTION

Working with others is largely a matter of communication, and we usually assume that communication takes place through the use of written and spoken words. Yet it is now widely recognized and taught in the field of social psychology that nonverbal communication is an important factor in all interpersonal relationships. The importance of the nonverbal aspects of human communication is especially great in the formation of first impressions. As this study will suggest, our lasting perceptions of others are heavily influenced by the initial encounter, and the first impression data which we use to evaluate others contains many nonverbal clues. Each of us constantly gives off literally hundreds of nonverbal signals which others are receiving and interpreting in a complex process which is mostly out-of-awareness. Most people are not consciously aware of the nonverbal impression they create, nor are they consciously aware of their own interpretations of the nonverbal actions of others. This study hopes to increase the sensitivity of the Navy manager to some of these subtle communication processes that influence our working relationships within the U. S. Navy.

The study of nonverbal communication is not new. Some authors trace this field of study back to Aristotle and cite Charles Darwin's scientific research into nonverbal

communication over a century ago [Harrison and Knapp, 1972, p. 339]. Nevertheless, this is an experimentally relatively unexplored and unapplied field. Dr. Albert E. Scheflen, M.D., in his recent book Body Language and Social Order, states that we hardly noticed kinesic (body language) behavior until the 1950's [Scheflen, 1972, p. 7]. With the exception of limited attention given to nonverbal communication in current Human Resource Management programs, the importance of this aspect of interpersonal relations in the U. S. Navy is largely neglected. Yet according to Erving Goffman, nonverbal signals and meanings are used to some extent by everyone in all social occasions [Goffman, 1968, p. 18]. According to Elton Mayo [Barnlund, 1968, p. 14], this is a field in which more exploration and application is needed in order to facilitate better communication.

Communication is one of the most significant elements in determining human interaction and interpersonal relations [Cullen, 1968, p. 1]. Greater emphasis is continually being placed on improving our ability to communicate with one another. Communication has long been the subject of study, in an effort to improve our interpersonal relationships. Verbal communication, both oral and written, has received and is receiving the majority of attention. Complete interpersonal communication, however, involves the nonverbal aspect as well. The two are inseparable in interpersonal transactions.

Nonverbal communication has only recently received some of the attention it deserves. As a result of this apparent

lack of interest in the nonverbal area, there has been an unfilled void in human relations training. If human effectiveness and productivity are to be achieved, the first step is to at least make the manager of people aware of the role nonverbal communication plays in all interpersonal relationships.

II. BACKGROUND: INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTION AND COMMUNICATION IN THE U. S. NAVY

Formal communication in the U. S. Navy is heavily ritualistic, must follow a correct format and takes place through channels which are well-defined and part of a highly structured organization. Thus the study of nonverbal communication seems of particular relevance. Historically open, two-way communication has not been encouraged. This reduces the possibility of interpersonal feedback and increases the likelihood that first impressions based largely upon nonverbal cues will persist, especially in superior/subordinate relationships where contact and communication are structurally defined and the parties interact almost exclusively within the confines of their organizational roles.

This social reality within the U. S. Navy makes it important to understand the part which the formation of first impressions plays in interpersonal perception and communication. Our initial contact with a person forms our first impression of him. As Navy managers, many times we base decisions on our first impressions without fully understanding the individuals involved. We need to develop an awareness of what is taking place when we assess individuals with only a first impression to guide us.

A first impression is the result of an initial social encounter. This phenomenon occurs frequently in the U. S.

Navy in such forms as reporting interviews, promotion and selection boards, Captains' masts, and with civilian contractors. In an organization of about half of a million persons, there is a constantly changing sea of faces with whom the Navy person comes into contact. First impressions are often long lasting ones and may be the only basis used to formulate opinions about the person's background or ability. In some cases, the individual may never get a second chance to alter his first impression.

In the U. S. Navy, there are and will always be personnel "reporting aboard." Many times their exact assignments are known in advance. Their tasks, supervisors, berthing spaces, etc., are given factors in the relocation evolution. Often times, however, personnel report who have no prior rating assignment or task assignment. These personnel must be initially interviewed and then assigned billets. It is during this initial interview phase that a first impression is formed. This first impression can have a long lasting effect on the individual's duty assignment and, in general, life in the service. If an initial impression made on the interviewer is good, and he forms the opinion that the individual is cooperative, conscientious, and a hard worker, he will probably be given a more responsible, more demanding job, known as an "OTE" (Opportunity to Excel). If an individual creates for himself a poor first impression, he will probably be detailed to a task of lesser calling. What both

individuals do with their initial situations is not the subject of this paper, but it does not take much imagination to realize which individual is starting out on the right foot!

Another example of a first impression playing an important part in a Navyman's life is that of going to Mast. Either an Executive Officer's or Commanding Officer's Mast may result when some infraction of a Navy regulation occurs that cannot be handled satisfactorily at a lower organizational level. On a large ship, it is very likely that the CO or XO has no personal knowledge of the individual. In this unpleasant situation for the individual concerned, the punishment awarded might very well be directly related to the first impression he creates. An individual with a correct military appearance, accompanied by a courteous manner, may receive a second chance or a lighter punishment, while an individual who had a sloppy appearance and was insolent and rude may be punished more severely, even if the offenses committed by both men were identical.

There are situations in both the formal organization and the informal organization that require cooperation between Naval units in order to mutually accomplish some goal. People representing these units must interact in order to form that cooperation. At a conference or meeting of the participants, first impressions are made that will affect the outcome of the mission. With a better understanding of the process of forming first impressions, we may be able to work more harmoniously with each other and achieve better results.

III. SCOPE AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this thesis is to establish some guidelines in the nonverbal communication area which may be used by Naval managers by providing them with a better understanding of personnel with whom they have social encounters.

Rosalind Dymond made the statement:

> Some people appear to be very sensitive to cues as to how others are feeling and reacting while others appear grossly unaware of the thoughts and feelings of others. The "faculty" of being able to see things from the other person's point of view, while it does not insure more respect or admiration for the other, does seem to assure more effective communication and understanding. For this reason it appears to be a most challenging and important area for investigation.[1]

While verbal communication can be deceiving, nonverbal cues probably cannot hide what the communicator is really sending. Studies show that while conscious deceit is being practiced, there is no control over the nonverbal cues that indicate deceit, such as less gesticulation, fewer positive head nods and increased smiling [Mehrabian, 1971, p. 64].

Although it is certain that nonverbal communication involves only a small part of what is happening in interpersonal relationships [Cullen, 1966, p. 12], change is needed to transition this area of communication from an

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[1]Dymond, Rosalind F., "Personality and Empathy," Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. XIV, No. 5 (October 1950), p. 344.

intuitive level to a more explicit systematic approach to the subject. Perhaps this thesis will aid in meeting that challenge.

This thesis will deal with some nonverbal aspects of first impression formation as they apply to managers in the U. S. Navy. A literature review will provide some insight as to the general nature of communication and the complexities and variables in social situations. First impression formation will be examined, with a comprehensive review of two areas of nonverbal communication, proxemics and kinesics, and their importance to interpersonal perception during initial encounters.

IV. THE SOCIAL SITUATION: CONTEXT FOR COMMUNICATION

Communication, both verbal and nonverbal, is affected by the social situation. Many factors comprise the social situation. Leary [Leary, 1968, p. 104] looks upon the social transaction as a game composed of: (1) roles, (2) rules, (3) rituals, (4) goals, (5) language and (6) values. Contained within these six categories are many possible variations, leading to innumerable complexities. These factors will be further defined and their relationships to first impressions explained.

Roles are families of expectancies surrounding a position and are significant in the Navy. The wearing of uniforms with rank, rate, and rating openly displayed makes it easy to see another's role or status at a glance. A person may simultaneously be playing several roles: for example, Naval Officer, father, husband, son, senior and subordinate. Each of these roles has its own rights and responsibilities. A person will behave differently as he changes from one of his roles to another.

During an initial encounter a person is assessed immediately and a role or set of roles can be perceived as being played by that person based upon our assessment of him. Perceiving this role has an effect on a person's entire verbal and nonverbal behavior. For example, an Ensign perceiving

a Commander might stand up straighter, prepare to salute, and prepare himself mentally to answer questions or give an account of some detail for which he is responsible. Should the approaching individual be a peer and a good friend, the Ensign may smile, relax and stay seated if he is sitting down. If the person being perceived is of lower status, the Ensign may prepare to return a salute or prepare to ask questions about some task that the individual is performing. In the initial encounter, a person's role plays an important part in how he approaches others, relative to his own position. Roles, however, are only one factor in the social situation.

Rules are another component of the social transaction. Rules define what behavior is acceptable and what behavior is not. Each situation has its own set of rules which apply. In a situation where the person entering a space is of lower status, the person entering usually knocks and waits to be invited in. A rule for a person entering who is of higher status is to knock and then enter, the knock announcing the senior's arrival. A customary and polite invitation may be extended. The rule for the lower status person is to stand up. A violation of this rule might indicate insolence, familiarity, ignorance, or something else, depending on the other factors determining the situation. During a first impression period, one is particularly aware of violations of the accepted rules.

Rituals are related to rules. Rituals are the actual behavior for which rules exist. An example of this in forming

a first impression is the handshake. The rule requires it; the ritual is how it is done. Performance of rituals may give nonverbal cues to the encoder's attitude. For example, if a Commander enters an Ensign's office, the rule is for the Ensign to stand up. The ritual of actually standing up may be done smartly so as to indicate attention, courtesy and deference to the Commander's seniority, especially if the Ensign needs approval for a special request chit to be signed. On the other hand, a slow, begrudging arising ritual may indicate insolence or a stiffness which resulted from yesterday afternoon's football game with another unit.

Goals of the individuals also play a part in social transactions. In an initial encounter, one's goals surrounding the encounter influence his behavior [Hunt, 1971, p. 281]. In social games such as an interview [Goffman, 1963, p. 18], the interviewee may have a set which includes being inferior to the interviewer or anxious about the topic of the interview at hand. The interviewee might be applying for a job and thus hope to get hired. He might have hopes of being listened to or possibly being praised. During this initial encounter, a similar set that the interviewer might have is one of being superior to the interviewee or of being confident about the interview topic. The interviewer may be interviewing job applicants and want to hire the interviewee. The interviewer might be seeking information about the interviewee or the organization and want to listen. Perhaps the interviewee has performed remarkably well and will be praised during the

interview. Both the interviewer and interviewee are forming first impressions, in part based on their goals or expectations of the situation.

The language used by persons in a social situation changes with the situation. In the Wardroom, the Ensign and Commander may speak in a more formal style. Nonverbally, they may be more aware of others watching. Should an initial encounter between the two take place in a more informal setting, out of the military environment, they may be more relaxed in their conversation, both verbally and nonverbally.

Another factor comprising the social situation is values. Each individual has a set of values, which may be different from those of others he comes in contact with. During a first impression, some of these values may surface and help create an attitude toward him in the perceiver.

The physical setting also affects the social situation [Barnlund, 1968, p. 536]. There are many contributing factors to settings. The size of the work area, the arrangement of those areas, the kinds of facilities available--desks, chairs, beds, personal artifacts--all affect the setting. Both the quantity and quality of light and sound are important, as are the temperature and humidity of the air [Watson, 1972, p. 47]. Factors such as comfort, visibility of people to one another, moods that a place evokes, memories that it triggers, ease or difficulty of doing various activities there, accidental contacts that occur through movement and the stimulation of new ideas or feelings all affect nonverbal behavior.

Geography and climate, both physical and psychological, along with landscape and architecture also have their effect on human interaction. According to Barnlund [Barnlund, 1968, p. 512], the difficulties in following the complex interplay of situational and behavioral variables are so immense as to discourage efforts to investigate the environment of interaction. Though the effect of the setting has not been empirically evaluated [Maslow and Mintz, 1956, p. 543], most authorities agree that the surroundings will definitely have an effect on the receiver's first impression [Steele, 1973, p. 10].

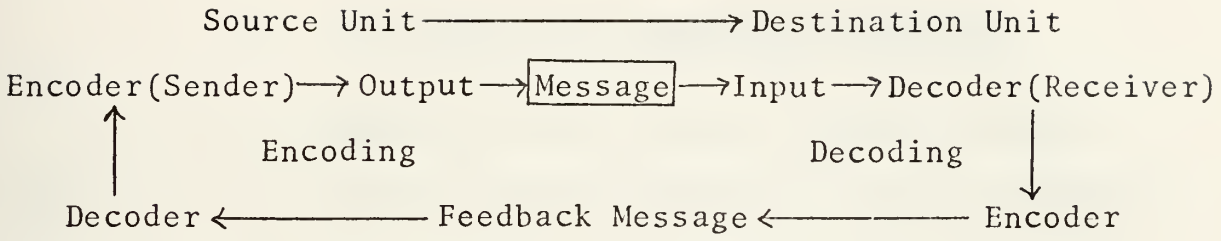
Interpersonal relationships are directly affected by the social situation in which they occur. First impressions, then, must be tempered by the social situation as it exists. To take this impression out of context would be to destroy what validity it has.

V. A MODEL OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Human communication is primarily a social affair [Osgood and Sebok, 1971, p. 200]. There must be at least two communicating units, a source unit (encoder) sending and a destination unit (decoder) receiving. Connecting the two units is a message. A message is the output of the encoder and simultaneously the input to the decoder. The messages may be verbal, for example oral or written linguistics, or nonverbal, for example postures, gestures, and facial expressions. Part of the source unit's or sender's behavior may not be communication at all, for example normal breathing and thinking. If the decoder cannot perceive the behavior, then it cannot be termed communication between the two. If another decoder happens by and perceives the behavior, then it is a communication between that decoder and the encoder. Upon receiving the message, the decoder will offer some feedback message. At that time the initial decoder becomes an encoder. In an actual human interaction, there are simultaneous and continuous encodings and decodings occurring. Figure 1 presents a simple two unit communication model (Dyad). This model applies to nonverbal communication as well as to verbal communication. The difference between the two is in the medium through which the message is transmitted.

Figure 1

COMMUNICATION MODEL



This paper focuses on the nonverbal portion of interpersonal communication, which plays a significant role in impression formation.

VI. THE NATURE OF IMPRESSION FORMATION

The first impression occurs within a social situation. It is a set of feelings created during an initial encounter. During the first few minutes of a dyadic initial encounter, opinions are formed of the other person. The opinions are based on everything that is observed, heard, smelled, or touched in regards to that individual. The perceding section describes various factors which are thought to operate in the setting in which impression are formed.

Goffman [Psychology Today, Second Edition, 1972, p. 462] assumes that people play roles and wear social masks. A central assumption of Goffman's work is that people want to gain a desired reaction from others. Often this desired reaction is one of approval. Thus, in an initial social encounter one of the forces operating may be the desire for approval. A personal value, indeed a goal, of the role a person plays, may be to create a favorable impression. The creating of this impression can be achieved through verbal and nonverbal actions. Goffman [Goffman, 1959, p. 2] feels that impressions are "given" and "given off." That is, roles are played, masks are worn, to give a certain impression. Often these impressions may be distrusted. However, impressions are also "given off" in a less voluntary or contrived way

through nonverbal behavior. These involuntary, more "natural" actions may tend to create a more permanent, believable impression.

Impression formation occurs within a social situation with its prescribed rules and rituals. Goffman hypothesizes that one or more of the actors may be attempting to define the situation for the others. In so doing, the actor(s) "gives off" an impression through his verbal and his nonverbal actions.

Inferences are on the basis of the activity that the role player engages in. These inferences are a function of the psychological set and the social setting in which the behavior occurs. A categorization process occurs in which people assess actions and assign these actions values. A more subtle, global process may occur in which the person's implicit personality theory comes into play. That is, a certain amount of stereotyping may happen during the formation of impressions.

The first impression of an individual formed by an observer is important for several reasons. It gives the perceiver something upon which to base his own future actions. Even though the impression may be stereotypic, it gives the perceiver a base from which to start. Many times, this first impression may be long-lasting. Several observations may be necessary in order to change the first impression. Second or subsequent observations may be impossible or are delayed

for long periods of time. In view of these facts, it would aid us in our interpersonal relations if we were able to form accurate first impressions.

In order to form more accurate first impressions, one approach is to use feedback techniques and "reality checks." In the U. S. Navy, however, most of this behavior is usually proscribed, making the recognition and interpretation of nonverbal cues very important. The person receiving these cues as part of the first impression must ferret out what the sending individual really thinks and feels, his personal goals and ambitions, and his abilities, strengths and weaknesses. The receiver must have enough of an understanding of human behavior to be able to discern verbal agreement and nonverbal anxiety, fear or dislike [Cullen, 1966, p. 5]. A study of research done by such notables as Birdwhistell, Ekman and Friesen, Hall, Goffman, and Mehrabian in the area of analyzing and interpreting nonverbal cues and applying the findings of this research should be of immeasurable aid to the Navy manager by increasing his sensitivity to a wider spectrum of communication channels.

VII. THE NONVERBAL IMPACT ON FIRST IMPRESSIONS

Nonverbal behavior plays a significant part in the formation of first impressions. Harrison defines nonverbal communication as follows:

> The term "nonverbal communication" has been applied to a broad range of phenomena; everything from facial expression and gesture to fashion and status symbol, from dance to drama to music and mime, from the flow of affect to the flow of traffic, from the territoriality of animals to the protocol of diplomats, from extrasensory perception to analog computers, and from the rhetoric of violence to the rhetoric of topless dancers.[2]

This definition covers a large territory, creating confusion in two areas: the separation between communication and non-communication and then the further distinction between verbal and nonverbal. There is no current consensus on either issue, but recently stands have been taken on what is and what is not communication and also what is verbal and nonverbal communication. Communication is the imparting of knowledge or information from one person to another, through any media. What normally might be considered communication, as far as there being a message, is not communication if there is no receiver of that message. There must be at least two units to have communication. Even in the case of an individual

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[2]Harrison, Randall P., "Nonverbal Communication," Handbook of Communication, (1973), p. 343.

talking to himself, he is performing both the function of the encoder and decoder. Verbal communication consists of the use of words, either oral or written. Nonverbal communication includes all other forms of communication. Ekman and Friesen [Harrison and Knapp, 1972, p. 344] maintain that for communication there must be "intent" on the part of the encoder, but that does not seem to be the prevailing view. Persons can always be communicating their emotions, with no intent whatsoever. Goffman calls this continuous communicating "body idiom:"

> Though the individual can stop talking, he cannot stop communicating through body idiom; he must say either the right thing or the wrong thing.[3]

This author will take the view held by Goffman, which appears to be a logical one. The encoder, regardless of his intent, will be considered to be communicating continuously. This does not say that the encoder cannot be concealing his intent or even deceiving any decoder happening by or even the encoder himself.

The term "first impressions" applies to the experience during initial social encounters. Such factors as the age, sex, color, smell, size, posture and appearance of the sender may affect the decoder's perception during a first impression period. For example, if the encoder is older than the decoder and the encoder is an authority figure, the decoder may very well feel some hostility and also that he is not understood

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[3]Goffman, Irving, Behavior in Public Places, (1969), p. 33.

by the older person. Age differences play an important part in the family environment and continue in school, adult life and in the Navy as well. Should the encoder be younger than the decoder and be the authority figure, as in an Ensign-Chief Petty Officer relationship, the older person might feel hostility. Part of the hostility felt in both examples is attributable to the authority represented, but the age difference also plays a part. An initial impression might very well be prejudiced if the other party in the interaction is of the opposite sex or of a different race or ethnic background. A Navy example might be a male encountering a female aviator, assigned to fly part of a mission as the SAR pilot; or finding that a person assigned to work with you on a project is of another color. An initial feeling of hostility or resentment might very well result. Initial impressions can be affected by many factors, both static and dynamic. Static factors are of an appearance nature, while dynamic refers to actions by an individual.

Cultural differences between the encoder and decoder may cause entirely different messages to be received than those transmitted during the initial social encounter. An example of this is given by Fast in his best seller, Body Language [Fast, 1970, p. 3]. A small-town boy was visiting a friend in a big city. Upon watching a lovely young brunette walking in front of him in a provocative manner, he set out to make her acquaintance, for he thought surely this manner of walking was an "invitation." As he began a conversation, she turned

to him, furious, and threatened to call the police. Aside from the differences in small-town and big city cultures, this occurred in a Spanish-speaking neighborhood. In a Spanish environment, women are protected from their environment by a rigid social custom, requiring that they be introduced formally to a suitor. No one would think of making a pass without the proper introductions. In the small town, however, this was not required. Therefore, small-town girls had to maintain their proper bearing at all times in order to keep their good reputation. In the Spanish big city neighborhood, the girls depended on the social custom to protect them and their reputation.

From the foregoing example, it can be seen that first impressions taken out of context from their particular social situations may then be disregarded as invalid, because the entire impression is molded by all of the forces present in the social situation.

Nonverbal communication is recognized as consisting of several areas, the most widely accepted being space perceptions or proxemics and body language or kinesics [Harrison and Knapp, 1972, p. 347]. Although there are other areas that can be considered such as learning, mental processes, time or timing, and emotional tone, the general areas of nonverbal communication covered in this paper will be proxemics and kinesics.

VIII. PROXEMICS (SPACE PERCEPTION)

"Proxemics," a term coined by Edward T. Hall, is defined as:

> . . . the interrelated observations and theories of man's use of space as a specialized elaboration of culture.

Hall more explicitly defines proxemics as:

> . . . the study of how man unconsciously structures micro space--the distance between men in conduct of daily transactions, the organization of space in his houses and buildings, and utlimately the layout of his towns.[4]

Hall originally concluded that eight specific ranges of distances exist in interpersonal behavior [Hall, 1959, p. 163]. Later he defined these to four: intimate, personal, social, and public [Hall, 1966, p. 108]. Hall further notes that "how people are feeling toward each other" at the time is a decisive factor in the distance used. The encoder can thus somewhat control the climate of the initial impression period by regulating the distance between himself and the decoder. Within the range of the personal distance zone (one and a half to four feet) extending roughly to the "arm's length" of both parties, interviews concerning topics of personal interest and involvement can be discussed comfortably [Delahanty, 1970, p. 758]. This personal distance applies to the

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[4]Hall, Edward T., "A System for the Notation of Proxemic Behavior," (1963), p. 1003.

"WASP" culture in the United States. Other subcultures may have different personal distances.

Cultural backgrounds play an important part in the accepted distance between persons during initial conversations. North Americans generally like and want more space than Latin Americans [Hall, 1959, p. 164]. Blacks tend to stand closer than whites [Horn, 1974, p. 30 and pp. 101-102, and Watson, 1972, p. 453]. In the case of the American Black, Hall [Hall, 1966, p. 159] points out that more open space is required. Even in busy or crowded situations, Hall found that the Black prefers not to be enclosed by walls and windows, nor does he like high rise apartment buildings.

During initial encounters, the distance between individuals plays an important part. The social situation will dictate what spatial arrangements will take place. This concept of space affecting communications is a valid one. As the distance closes excessively between communicators, an instant reaction takes place--one person backs up. If the other person closes again, the first will back up again [Hall, 1959, p. 160]. In this social situation, the rule governing the distance between the persons has been violated. During an initial encounter, the distance may be farther apart than during future encounters, because increasing intimacy may cause the distance to decrease. Goffman describes this space as "personal space"--around or in front of an individual, his claim to which is respected because of apparent instrumental needs [Goffman, 1971, p. 30].

An example of how roles may affect the personal distance during an initial encounter follows. An individual reporting to his newly assigned unit as a supervisor is being introduced to his new subordinates by the person he is relieving. The personal distance between the newcomer and his new charges may be farther than the distance between a newcomer and the men if they were of equal status. A feeling of solidarity with one of equal status may cause the distance to decrease even more. The space an individual needs and how he uses it is determined by the social situation as he perceives it. Many additional factors play a part in the social situation in the area of proxemics. Some of these factors will be explored so as to provide more insight into the bases of first impressions.

Territoriality, the possession and defense of living space, has long been studied in animals and is commonly accepted as a basic concept in the study of animal behavior. H. Hediger [Hall, 1966, p. 8] states that territoriality insures the propagation of the species by regulating density. Comparative studies of animals help to show how man's space requirements are influenced by his environment. The direction, rate, and extent of changes in animal behavior caused by changes in space can be much more readily studies in animals than man, for several reasons. Time is accelerated with animals because of their shorter generations. Also, animals don't rationalize their behavior and thus obscure the issues. By observing the way animals handle space, it is possible to

learn an amazing amount that is translatable to human terms [Hall, 1966, p. 7]. As the zone or territory around an individual diminishes in size during the initial encounter, reactions will inevitably take place to guard or defend the area [Hall, 1959, p. 18]. These guarding and defending reactions are elements of nonverbal communication.

If territorial requirements are not observed in the initial encounter, then aggression may occur as a result. According to ethologists such as Konrad Lorez, aggression is a necessary ingredient of life. Studies done with the North Sea crab, "Hyas Araneus" and the stickleback fish have provided useful information about the relation of space to reproduction and population control [Hall, 1966, p. 16]. The studies showed that when crowding occurred, natural aggression caused the populations to decrease. Similar results were found in studies done with Sika deer on James Island in the Chesapeake Bay. During a forty-two year period the deer population grew to one animal per acre. In the following two-year period, the herd dwindled to one fourth its size. Autopsies showed greatly enlarged adrenals. Since starvation was not a factor, and no other agent causing death could be identified, it was inferred that the deer died of stress from overcrowding [Hall, 1972, p. 209]. Aggression leads to the proper spacing of animals, by survival of the fittest, lest they become so numerous as to destroy their environment and themselves along with it [Davis, 1971, p. 98]. Modern man is not wise enough to realize when he is overpopulating himself. Famines and

disease must occur to check his overcrowding. Perhaps wars could be considered to be another facet of population control. As the population increases, so do psychological and emotional stresses. When overcrowding does occur, so does a violation of the inhabitant's territorial rights, resulting in social disturbances. The first impression may indicate that an individual is more tense than usual if his environment overcrowds him. Dr. Augustus F. Kinzel, in a study involving federal prisoners, discovered that persons with violent behavior tendencies required four times the volume in their "body buffer zones" than did the non-violent persons [Fast, 1970, p. 47]. If the insistence on territorial rights in initial social encounters is respected or granted, stress may thereby be minimized. Even when the setting is sufficiently spacious, violations of territorial rights may occur [Mehrabian, 1971, p. 38]. Referring to Rosalind Dymond's statement cited earlier, some people are grossly unaware of the thoughts and feelings of others and the effects of their own actions, regardless of intent.

As has been mentioned, different cultues have different personal space requirements, so that situations that crowd people of one culture and cause stress and tension do not necessarily crowd people of another culture and produce the same stresses and tension. Sex differences within cultures also produce different reactions when crowding occurs. Men crowded together become suspicious and combative, while women become friendlier and more intimate with one another [Davis, 1971, p. 99]. Similarly, a nonverbal act in one

culture may be aggressive and stressful to one people but normal and acceptable to another. In order for a first impression to be as accurate as possible, the culture of the individual being assessed must be considered, in context with the setting that the impression is being made in.

Watson [Watson, 1972, p. 456] reports that proxemic norms of foreign college students are likely to be violated while they are residents in this country. Engebretson and Fullmer [Engebretson and Fullmer, 1970, p. 223] report that proxemic norms were similar for both Hawaii Japanese and American Caucasians, while different for native Japanese, having a different cultural background. Hall points out [Hall, 1966, p. 6] that something must be done in order for all the existing cultures in the United States, particularly the American Blacks and Spanish Americans, to survive. It seems as though planners, architects, and builders are presently going about their business with no thought to man's proxemic needs. Hall and Watson both agree that empirical research on specific cultural proxemic needs is lacking. Yet they both believe in the importance of correct spatial settings.

Steele [Steele, 1973, p. 8] calls this relationship between space and man's well being "environmental competence."

> Two factors constitute environmental competence: (1) the ability to be aware of one's physical environment and its impact, and (2) the ability to use or change that environment to suit one's needs.[5]

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[5]Steele, Fred I., Personal Space: The Behavioral Basis of Design, (1973), p. 8.

As people become more aware of their settings, different nonverbal signals are emitted. This awareness may produce a stimulus to alter the setting in order to align it with its intended purpose. In the Navy, many of the physical settings have some factors that are already established, e.g., the ship compartment size, office size, etc.. However, by becoming more aware of individuals' reactions when placed in certain settings, appropriate changes may be possible to improve the effectiveness of the persons working or living in these spaces [Sommer, 1969, p. 79]. During an initial encounter with someone who seems anxious, hostile, or uncomfortable, it may be that the individual's environment is eliciting that behavior. Placed in different surroundings, the individual may create an entirely different first impression.

An example of how spatial arrangements affect interpersonal relations was shown in a hospital study done by Sommer. Sommer discovered that certain table seating relationships were more conducive to communication than others. He found that persons situated at right angles to each other produced six times as many conversations as face-to-face situations and twice as many as the side by side arrangements [Hall, 1966, p. 102]. This study suggests that a corner arrangement of chairs in an interview might be more conducive to openness and communication than would a more formal face-to-face arrangement (Delahanty, 1970, p. 759]. The face-to-face arrangement may imply a confrontation, rather than mutual cooperation, as

the right angle may imply. Once again, this factor of spatial arrangement may be combined with all the other factors comprising the social situation to help determine the outcome of a first impression.

Other spatial arrangements emphasize superior-subordinate relationships. Sitting at the head of a table or at the seat furthest from the door is interpreted as a symbol of higher status or superiority. The higher-status person of an organization is usually assigned larger or more private offices or quarters [Mehrabian, 1971, p. 34]. In a dyad consisting of higher-lower status persons, the personal distance will be greater than that of an equal status dyad [Davis, 1971, p. 101]. Davis goes on to report that a higher status person will venture farther into the area of a lower status person. Intimacy with the person also leads to closer physical relationships. These spatial arrangements in the first encounter may play an important but subtle role if the actors are unaware of the dynamics of the situation. With the aid of proxemics, an impression may be "given off" that the superior is distant and quite removed from those with whom he communicates.

Unless the manager has a reason to emphasize his status, he would be wise to de-emphasize such exhibitions of status symbols as they tend to make the receiver of his messages less communicative and more ill at ease. The nature of the setting, particularly spatial arrangements, modifies or facilitates the personal interaction during a social encounter, whether it is the initial one or subsequent ones [Delahanty,

1970, p. 759]. Certain types of spatial arrangements may violate some of the informal rules of the situation and create the impression of a deviant. For example, if instead of sitting behind his large desk, the superior comes around in front of the desk and sits down, an impression of informality may be "given off." This is a combination of both proxemics and kinesics in action.

IX. KINESICS (BODY LANGUAGE)

Morton, et. al., define kinesics thusly:

> In principle, under specified conditions, everything a person does, every action or movement he makes can be used by a trained, knowledgeable, and sensitive observer as a basis (either from the behaviors themselves or from inferences based on these behaviors) for categorizing (or inferring about) the individual--his state, thoughts, feeling, personality, or cultural patterns.[6]

Other interpretations of body language vary from placing the encoder in a role of revealing himself covertly to communicating directly via these behaviors. Dr. Birdwhistell bases his theories

> On the conviction that body motion is a learned form of communication which is patterned within a culture and which can be broken down into an ordered system of isolable elements.[7]

Body language includes posture, physique, touching, facial expressions, eye contact, and gestures such as the movement of the hands and arms [Dean and Athos, 1970, p. 7]. A person's body language is influenced by his age, sex, ethnic background and social class.

The dynamics of the social situation also affect body language. For example, during a ritual such as a funeral, everyone's face may be displaying sorrow and grief. At a

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[6]Wiener, Morton; Davoe, Shannon; Rubinow, Stuart; and Geller, Jesse, "Nonverbal Behavior and Nonverbal Communication," Psychological Review, (May 1972), p. 187.

[7]Birdwhistell, R. L., Kinesics and Context, (1970), p. xi.

wedding the facial expressions may show happiness, smiles might be commonplace and joyous laughter abounding. Different roles being enacted may cause a display of body language expected of that role in that situation. For example, during a funeral, the close family of the deceased may be in tears, while other relatives and friends may just have sad faces. In a wedding, the bride's mother may also be in tears, but for different reasons.

Interpreting body language is not a precise science. Birdwhistell warns that sometimes the nonverbal cues do not mean what they appear to be communicating, but that they are only true in the context of the entire behavior pattern of a person [Fast, 1970, p. 108]. A major danger in this area is perceptual distortion on the part of the person interpreting the nonverbal actions. That is, the person observing kinesics may be selectively attending to only certain portions of the situation. In addition, the perceiver may be projecting his own meaning on to the action, which may not be intended.

One of the factors included in kinesics is posture. A person's posture is always evident and can be decoded after just a glance. It is an important part of a first impression. Much insight can be gained by analyzing a person's posture. An indication of positive feelings may be evidenced by one person leaning toward the other during a conversation. Relaxation of posture is a good indicator of both attitude and status, and can be observed in the muscular tension in the hands, the amount of forward lean, sideways lean, reclining

angle, and for women, open or closed arm postion [Mehrabian, 1968, p. 54]. Forward lean indicates attention, while sideways lean or a reclining angle indicate a more relaxed condition. Greater relaxation is associated with higher status [Mehrabian, 1971, p. 62]. Lower status is likely to be shown by an upright posture and a symmetrical placement of the arms and legs. A military example of this type of behavior is that of a personnel inspection by a high-ranking officer. In this example, the casual and relaxed military officer walks past the straight lines of symmetrically rigid, subordinate personnel [Mehrabian, 1971, p. 116].

The closed arm position in women may signify being closed to any advances. Crossed arms in either sex may communicate frustration, a closed mind, or an unwillingness to listen [Fast, 1970, p. 89], depending on the social situation. For example, a person in an authority role may be signifying stern displeasure by crossing his arms and frowning at the same time. In a role of listener, crossed arms may indicate unwillingness to listen. All of these arm positions operate to "give off" an impression during this initial social encounter.

Mehrabian further states that some studies suggest that a speaker relaxes either very little or a great deal when he dislikes the person he is talking to, and relaxes to a moderate degree when he likes the other person. Extreme tension occurs in the presence of threatening persons, and extreme relaxation occurs with those who are both non-threatening and disliked [Mehrabian, 1968, p. 55]. As for status,

a person relaxes most with someone of lower status and least with someone of higher status than themselves. During an initial encounter, the amount of tension a person exhibits may be representing the amount of status difference the individual feels.

A continuation of a particular outward manifestation of emotion may become a permanent physical characteristic. Muscles may tend to grow to conform to the emotional posture, resulting in poor posture and physical complications such as repetitive headaches, bursitis, asthma, poor digestion, and disturbance of normal cardiac function [Rolf, 1963, p. 10]. Should a permanent physical distortion take place, a first impression might be erroneous if based on posture alone.

Posture may also reflect personality and ego strength. Dean and Athos report that a sway back may not have the ego strength of a person whose back is straight. On the other hand, a straight back may not be as flexible. An over expanded chest indicates more feeling, though it is not necessarily a sign of health [Dean and Athos, 1970, p. 11].

The position of the shoulders may also reflect ego function. Retracted shoulders may represent repressed anger, while raised shoulders may be related to fear [Fast, 1970, p. 71]; square shoulders indicate the manly attitude of shouldering one's responsibilities; bowed shoulders show a sense of defeat or heavy burden. The size of the shoulders in relation to the waist and legs may relate to sensitivity. A softer, relaxed upper torso may be available for quicker, more

sensitive movements. A jaw thrust forward may express determination or thrust further forward may give it a fighting expression. Eyes may also reflect the personality. They have a greater tendency to change with different moods, reflecting anger, sadness, job, hardness, and softness [Dean and Athos, 1970, p. 12].

An important part of a first impression may be gained from a quick glance at the person's physique. Sheldon devised a system of classifying physiques and further describing the basic temperament pattern that was associated with each type of physique [Allport, 1964, pp. 59-62]. It must be remembered however, that most people are a combination of types. The different types only indicate that different personalities may be associated with a particular body type. The observer must be aware that a correlation between body type and personality is stereotypic. Therefore, a first impression may be prejudiced by a particular body type being evidenced. Nonetheless, Sheldon's theory will be set forth, so that the reader may determine what prejudicial views he may have.

According to Sheldon, there are three basic body types. The three types are endomorphic--having large digestive viscera and other body cavities, a "roundish" build, but relatively weak in bony and muscular development; mesomorphic--having large bones and muscles and a "squarish" build; and the ectomorphic--having long, slender extremities but small body cavities and lacking in muscular development--a "linear" build.

Sheldon's theory holds that the temperament/physique relationship is as follows: the endomorph (viscerotonic) exhibits the characteristics of love and comfort, relaxation, slow reaction, love of eating, sociability, amiability, complacency, deep sleep, and needs people when troubled; the mesomorph (somatotonic) exhibits assertiveness, love of physical adventure, need for exercise, being energetic, love of dominating, love of risk and chance, directness of manner, courage, general noisiness, and a need for action when troubled; and the ectomorph (cerebrotonic) exhibits restraint in posture and movement, rapid reactions, overintense, anxious, secretive, inhibited, poor sleep, introverted in thought, and needs solitude when troubled. Many studies of the association between temperament and body types have been conducted, with various correlations being claimed [Dean and Athos, 1970, p. 17]. Regardless of the scientific support for the correlation, the more important aspect of the association of temperament with body build is that we initially judge people on what we see and one of the first facts we discover about a person is his physique. Immediately, some kind of mental judgement is formed, usually stereotypic until proven to be otherwise.

Another facet of body language is touching. Touching is one of the most intimate ways to express oneself and communicate to another. The social situation will cause the tactile responses of the individuals during an initial encounter to vary. The amount of touching, how one is

touched, how long, where, etc., all are determined by the existing social situation.

There are certain sets of expectations and rules to be conformed to with regards to touching. Much of the behavior is determined by the roles of the participants and by the ritualistic character of the social situation. Doctors touch patients, patients do not touch doctors. Ministers touch and bless members of the congregation and not vice versa. A slap on the back may be appropriate from a boss while a lingering arm around the should may be seen as a violation of role behavior and social rules guiding an initial encounter. During a funeral, for example, there may be more consoling and touching in general by the mourners than by the attendees of a football game.

For a newborn baby, being touched and receiving tactile stimulation is necessary for survival. After the tremendous shock of birth, a baby needs tactile stimulation to simulate the enclosing protectiveness of the womb it just left. By keeping a baby covered with blankets and baby clothes and by holding, fondling and rocking the baby the "opening shock" is lessened [Morris, 1971, p. 22].

As a person grows older, touching is still necessary for normal psychological development. The child wants independence from its mother but still needs the security of its mother's embrace. A substitution of visual communication for tactile stimulation occurs; exchanging facial expressions with the mother becomes as reassuring as being held by her. Other

mother substitutes are the favorite teddy bear, blanket, or soft cuddly toy. These can be held tightly, reassuring the child, while at the same time asserting some measure of independence from the mother.

There are many culturally learned body language acts or "kinemes." Tactile acts such as kissing take on different meanings in other cultures. While Americans accept kissing readily, even in public, the Japanese consider it disgusting except in private lovemaking. Kissing by Eskimos is replaced by nose-rubbing [LaBarre, 1964, p. 172]. Frank [Frank, 1957, p. 204] reports that some cultures provide rituals or ceremonies for public sanction for establishing tactile communications between certain persons. Some examples are betrothal, marriage, divorce and puberty rites.

During first meetings we are usually not involved in very much touching, perhaps only a handshake. The introductory handshake gives us insight into the individual, however. Although no empirical data was found to classify handshakes, there are some generally accepted rules of interpretation [Mehrabian, 1971, p. 7]. A firm, intense handshake is indicative of greater liking and warmer feelings. A prolonger handshake is too intimate to be comfortable--by loosening one's grip a cue is given to discontinue the handshake. A loosely clasping hand or a cold and limp one, in this country, is interpreted as indicating aloofness and unwillingness to become involved. This type of handshake generally is interpreted as unaffectionate or unfriendly.

Another type that this author finds particularly annoying is a handshake manipulated or coordinated so that only the other person's fingers are grasped. It seems as if the other person is reluctant to let himself go to the point of withdrawing at the same time he is professing a desire to make friends with this stranger. Other types of handshakes, common to Blacks, are the "slap" or "soul" handshake that consists of one Black holding his palm in an upward position while the other Black slaps the palm of his own, usually in a vigorous manner [Johnson, 1971, p. 188]. Another handshake common to Blacks, Chicanos, young motorcycle riders and youth in general is the "Brother" handshake. This is done by extending the right arm, hand slightly raised and grasping the other person's thumb firmly in a manner that exudes solidarity. Blacks further modify this handshake with various hand movements in what is known as "dapping."

Facial expressions are another form of communicating nonverbally. The expressions will vary in accordance with the existing social situation. The fact that an initial encounter is occurring will cause facial expressions to vary also. Facial expressions may consist of changes in the disposition of the eyes, eyebrows, mouth, combined with posture changes of the head [Heron, 1970, p. 243]. An initial encounter invariably yields many different facial expressions, which may or may not coincide with the verbal presentation. Not only does the facial expression tell us something of the encoder's feelings, but also the time interval involved in

making the expression, holding it and letting it go. According to Ekman [Davis, 1971, p. 51], over a thousand different facial expressions are anatomically possible. Most expressions that we see are not full strength, however, and toned down to socially conform. Therefore the real emotions are masked and are more difficult to interpret [Fast, 1970, p. 53]. During initial encounters, expressions may be masked even more. After the "ice is broken" facial expressions may increase and also be more enthusiastic.

Some of the most common facial expressions are smiles to show pleasure and happiness, frowns to show dislike or dissatisfaction and scowls to express anger. Ekman believes that there are some universal facial expressions such as those named above, while Birdwhistell maintains that the expressions might be similar in all cultures, but the meaning people attach to them differs from culture to culture [Davis, 1971, p. 54]. The baring of teeth is generally recognized as a sign of anger, hostility, or disdain, giving an animal-like appearance of a snarl. An eyebrow flash is recognized the world over as a sign of recognition [Scheflen, 1972, p. 37]. LaBarre [LaBarre, 1972, p. 173] reports that sticking out the tongue has a variety of cultural meanings. In America this act is usually recognized as being juvenile in nature, and is a sign of provocative mockery, defiance or contempt. When used by an adult male, it generally signifies that he is effeminate.

Another form of very intimate communication is through eye contact. The social situation dictates the amount and type of eye contact one has with another during an encounter. Studies conducted have given us some insight into how eye contact varies with different individuals in different social situations. For example, the role of authority during a disciplinary initial encounter by a policeman may be to look directly at the offender. The offender, perhaps ashamed at being apprehended, may look down at this feet.

Ellsworth and Ludwig used visual behavior as a dependent variable to measure stable individual and group differences [Ellsworth and Ludwig, 1972, p. 375]. They cited studies that concluded there was no standard looking behavior during conversations, but that the time spent looking at the other varied, depending on the individual. In a group, however, the gaze patterns were more consistent for subjects across the different interactions. Ellsworth and Ludwig also reported that women have been found to engage in more eye contact than men. Women also feel more observed than males and that visual information plays a greater role in the social field of women than of men. Data on personality correlates of visual behavior was not as conclusive as that on sexual differences. It was also discovered that individuals can readily tell if they are being looked at [Ellsworth and Ludwig, 1972, p. 383]. Another study indicated that a verbal message accompanied by eye contact would be more likely believed than one accompanied by less eye contact.

Scheflen [Scheflen, 1972, p. 36] describes a situation of two people passing each other on the street with "civil inattention." At twelve to fifteen feet, they glance at each other, thus locating and acknowledging each other's presence. As they get closer to each other, they both look down and away, avoiding each other and thereby not inviting a longer encounter. Recalling the anecdote concerning the small-town boy and big-city Spanish girl, it would have been proper for her, culturally, to hold a passing gaze a split second longer than the boy was accustomed to, seemingly inviting a more intimate encounter [Scheflen, 1972, p. 36]. Scheflen also reports that Blacks and Whites often avoid the civil exchange of glances, or look away abruptly; these encounters are perceived as hostile.

A direct unwavering stare is considered threatening, to many animals as well as to man. Yet the deep gaze into the eyes of a lover can be sexually stimulating. Society dictates that we do not hold a gaze for too long a period, more than one second [Dean and Athos, 1970, p. 14]. To do so is rude, prying and inviting hostile reactions from the person being stared at [Scheflen, 1972, p. 36]. The person being stared at need not see the starer; the starer is often felt intuitively [Davis, 1971, p. 64]. Literature is filled with examples of gazing and eye contact and the intimacy they can produce [Heron, 1970, p. 249]. The gazer can be absentminded and not really be seeing what is being looked at. Also, the greater the distance from the encoder, the less accurate will be the interpretation of the eye contact [Ellgring, 1970, p. 607].

Blacks have some culturally different eye movements that have significant meanings. In stress or conflict situations particularly when one of the participants is in a subordinate position, a Black may express with his eyes an insolent, hostile disapproval of the person who is in the authority role. This eye movement is called "rolling the eyes" [Johnson, 1972, p. 183]. In rolling the eyes, the eyes are moved from one side of the eye socket to the other, in a low arc (usually, this movement is preceded by a stare at the other person, but not an eye-to-eye stare). The eyelids are slightly lowered when the eye balls are moved in the low arc. The eye balls always move away from the other person. The entire movement is very quick, and may go unnoticed, particularly if the other person is not Black. Sometimes the eye movement is accompanied by a slight lifting of the head, or a twitching of the nose, or both. Rolling the eyes is more common among Black females than it is among Black males. Another common eye behavior of Blacks, particularly males, is to avoid looking into the eye of a White. This communicates that the Black is accepting a subordinate role and is accepting White dominance. To the White, however, it communicates that the Black is being shifty and unreliable [Johnson, 1972, p. 184]. During an initial encounter, these eye movements may create an incorrect impression if the person is not familiar with Black kinemes. However, these eye movements may differ if the Black occupies the superior position.

Ekman and Friesen have conducted studies on many aspects of body language and nonverbal communication, with interesting and empirically based theories. Nonverbal acts were measured as to their frequency and duration, with designations assigned to visually distinctive acts. Gestures were divided into three classes based on the origin, coding and usage of the act [Ekman and Friesen, 1972, p. 357]. The first group of acts are called emblems. Emblems are those acts which can be directly translated into a word or two or a phrase. They have a precise meaning which is recognized by most everyone within a group, class, subculture or culture. Emblems are most often deliberately used with conscious intent to communicate some message directly to someone who knows the message was deliberately sent to him, and for which the sender takes the responsibility for having made that communication. An example of an emblem used in a first impression would be a friendly salutation, an open-palmed greeting gesture. Emblems are learned cultural gestures.

The second group of acts are called illustrators. They are intimately related with speech and usually augment what is said verbally, but they may be contradictory. Illustrators are similar to emblems in that they are used with awareness and intentionality, although their use is usually more peripheral than focal. Many illustrators do not have as precise a definition as the emblems, nor can they occur without conversation. They are always shown by the speaker in a conversation. Both set and setting have an effect on the

frequency of illustrators used. In a more formal setting, in a nondominant position, when a person is tired, discouraged, demoralized, unenthusiastic, or unconcerned about the impression he is making, he will use fewer illustrators than when the opposite conditions exist. Also, when the speaker feels he is not getting across to the listener, his usage of illustrators will increase. Illustrators are also culturally learned gestures. An example of an illustrator is showing the size of something being talked about. During the initial social encounter the frequent use of illustrators may "give off" the impression that the person is expressive. If the rules and roles surrounding the situation condone nonverbal illustrators, then the impression may be favorable. If the values and rituals of the initial social encounter reject acts such as illustrators, then a person exhibiting such behavior may be seen as a deviant and a negative first impression may result. An example of a place where expressive illustrators would not be proper is in a funeral home during a funeral. It should be noted that if one is not aware of the nature of the social situation, one may be oblivious to reasons for the impression that is created.

The third class of acts are called adaptors, movements which are first learned to satisfy self needs or body needs, to manage or cope with emotions, to perform certain bodily actions, to develop or maintain prototypic interpersonal contacts, or to learn instrumental activities. Adaptive acts are usually emitted in private, or in public if the

person is alone, and are not the conspicuous object of anyone's attention. The act will be carried through to completion, so that it is obvious what need is being satisfied. When being watched, a person will modify the adaptor acts so that they are not so conspicuous. An example of an adaptor is scratching some part of the body that itches. In certain initial social encounters, frequent use of the adaptors such as scratching, rubbing, flexing muscles, fingers, etc., may be quite inappropriate. If, for example, a person is in a job interview for a position requiring contact with the public, these adaptive acts may "give off" the impression of nervousness, lack of social poise. Again, attention must be paid to the dynamics of the social situation with its rules, rituals and values.

Aside from technical gestures such as semaphore signalling, traffic directing, sports refereeing, and the like, there are literally hundreds of thousands of different gestures, far exceeding the limits of the average vocabulary. Once again, gestures are flavored by the social situation in which they occur. Even in a routine job such as directing traffic, Scheflen [Scheflen, 1972, p. 26] points out that the gestures are completely different from culture to culture, for example from Italian to American.

Since there have been very few studies done to empirically classify gestures, most of the interpretations are general and somewhat opinionated. In the studies that have been done interesting results have been obtained. In a study done by

Carmichael, Roberts, and Wessel [Dean and Athos, 1970, p. 14] an actor was placed behind a curtain with only his hands visible. As the actor portrayed sets of emotions, photographs were taken and later shown to the subjects. There are substantial agreement on the emotion they saw as being conveyed. Even greater agreement resulted when motion pictures were used. Surprise, fear, prayer, thoughtfulness, pleading, anxiety, warming, determination and satisfaction were the most easily understood [Dean and Athos, 1970, p. 14].

The hands may be used to convey messages at other times during an initial encounter than during the greeting phase. A person reclining in a chair, placing his hands behind his head may signify superiority [Fast, 1970, p. 123]. A Black female may convey hostility by placing her hands on her hips, one foot behind the other, buttocks protruding [Johnson, 1971, p. 189]. A hand held over the mouth while talking may be trying to cover something dishonest. A hand held over an eye or rubbing an eye, while verbally agreeing, may signify refusal to believe what has been said [Scheflen, 1972, p. 79]. A parent shaking an index finger at a child is exhibiting dominance and warning the child in a negative manner [Scheflen, 1972, p. 117].

A hand signal common to initial encounters in the military between officers and enlisted personnel is the salute. As Birdwhistell reports [Birdwhistell, 1970, p. 79], there is more than one way to execute this relatively simple gesture.

> By shifts in stance, facial expression, the velocity or duration of the movement of salutation, and even in the selection of inappropriate contexts for the act, the soldier could dignify, ridicule, demean, or promote the recipient of the salute.[8]

Much research has been done on verifying the honesty or dishonesty of the encoder and his facial expressions. Cues such as nervousness, lip licking, eye rubbing and scratching, tend to give away dishonest communication [Davis, 1971, p. 51]. Mehrabian found that introverted or high-anxious communicators exhibited less facial pleasantness while they were being deceptive, while the reverse was true for low-anxious communicators [Mehrabian, 1971b, p. 70]. A further finding, which was expected in terms of general interpretation, was that the individual who feels insecure or uneasy in an interaction is the one who smiles more.

In a study of honest and deceptive behavior, it was found that there was a high correlation (.75) between the subjects' judgements of deception and honesty and the situation as it actually existed [Ekman and Friesen, 1972, p. 369]. The subjects judged persons appearing anxious, fidgety, and nervous as being deceptive and those who were not as honest. The importance of this evaluation of people on an initial encounter cannot be overemphasized. If a person is judged to be dishonest, it naturally follows that no verbal communications will be believed, negating the person's efforts at communicating at all.

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[8] Ibid., p. 79.

X. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this final section is to summarize the information researched and provide some specific examples in which this information may be used by the Navy manager. The literature covered a wide range of nonverbal communications topics, both theoretical and of a practical nature. While the researcher and theorist would more likely appreciate the writings of Ekman and Friesen, Birdwhistell, and Sommer, this author found the works of Scheflen, Mehrabian, Morris, Davis, and Goffman more informative from a practical standpoint.

In the introduction it was stated that the nonverbal communication field was a relatively unexplored one until recently. During the last two decades there has been an exponential growth rate in nonverbal communication research and literature. Different studies have produced conflicting results in some cases. As was stated earlier, nonverbal communication interpretation is not an exact science, able to be replicated time after time with the same results, as is a chemical experiment. With this in mind, the Navy manager, or any manager for that matter, may still apply the information discussed herein, keeping in mind that it is of a general nature.

From the literature search, there appears to be lack of unity of purpose in some researchers. With diverse fields such as anthropology, psychology and sociology all seeking

answers to similar questions, it is easily understandable why there is some conflict and confusion. Just gaining acceptance of the idea of the importance of nonverbal communication will be difficult in some quarters. Following research findings, better dissemination of the results should be made. Once again, it is a problem of education. There doesn't seem to be enough emphasis placed on this essential method of communication.

A major emphasis in this paper has been on the nature of the social situation in which nonverbal communication appears. The Navy manager must attend to the roles, rules, and ritualistic character of the encounter. Are the nonverbal behaviors in accordance with the constraints of the transaction? If not, then what is the nature of the deviation? The Navy manager must also focus on the language, values and goals of the social transaction. Nonverbal behavior occurs within a setting having certain values on certain kinds of activity. The actors in the transaction bring expectations as to what will transpire and what will be attained. Nonverbal behavior must be considered within this value-goal constraint. Thus, the Navy manager must constantly be aware of where he is, who he is with, and what is going on.

Initial social transactions by their very nature are new. The social setting may be familiar to the actors but the actors themselves present novel information to one another. Given this situation, first impressions are often influenced as much by nonverbal behavior as by verbal activity. The

nature of the impression formation process may operate at fairly unconscious levels. As mentioned earlier, implicit notions of personality and stereotypes may play a large part in forming the impression. Because of prior implicit notions of what people should behave like, and what the actor values, a great deal of perceptual selection and distortion may occur in accordance with the actor's needs. This leads to a certain kind of impression which may be unconsciously directed by only a few central traits such as race or sex. In addition, aspects of the initial encounter may be selectively remembered and resistant to change. The first impression may be a fairly lasting one especially if there is no chance to gain new information. The formation of impressions is a very subtle process for most people and Navy managers are no exception. Perhaps this paper will help the Navy manager become aware of a major source of information in the formation of impressions--nonverbal behavior.

In an initial encounter, an added amount of manifest and/or latent anxiety may be present. Nonverbal cues may be toned down somewhat during initial encounters. With these thoughts in mind, some specific examples will be discussed.

In an initial encounter, there are many factors to consider in order to make the encounter more enjoyable or productive. The situation or setting must be examined. Is the encounter taking place in the commonly accepted setting for such encounters? What is the set or expectations of the parties involved? What feelings does the set seem to be causing?

What is the relationship between the individuals? Are they of equal status, slightly different or is there a wide gap in their status? Is there more than one type of status that can be considered? An example is a relationship between a Commander and a Chief Petty Officer. There is the immediate difference in rank. However, if the purpose of the encounter is to discuss the raising of show dogs and the Chief is a locally recognized expert in the field while the Commander is a novice, an entirely different status relationship is apparent. Another factor that should be considered is age. In the previous example, the age difference may be minimal. In a relationship between a Chief and a newly reported recruit, the age difference may be very similar to a parent-child relationship. In that case, the Chief may find himself being placed in a father role by the recruit. Geographical backgrounds may also affect the encounter. A person with an obvious Brooklyn accent may find a slow-talking Mississippian frustrating, or difficult to understand. Observing the physique and posture of an individual may be helpful in generalizing the type of personality he has. An obvious personal characteristic is color. A difference in racial background may foster some prejudicial dislike, anxiety, or lack of understanding. The manner in which an individual handles touching may give us an indication of his warmth and affection and his general attitude toward others. Another indication of a person's attitude is shown by his facial expressions and hand and arm gestures. The person may

communicate nervousness, dishonesty or openness all with various expressions and gestures. The amount or type of eye contact one uses gives us an indication of his attitude.

In addition to the examples cited thus far, there are obviously many more situations in which an understanding of nonverbal cues during first impressions can be helpful. Since one of the basic tenets of good leadership is to know the people one is dealing with, it naturally follows that a thorough understanding of all aspects of nonverbal communication may prove helpful.

If the reader of this thesis goes away with nothing more than a new awareness of the nonverbal aspect of communicating, then the effort of writing this paper will have been worthwhile. So much goes on around us that we take for granted or allow our subconscious mind to interpret. People, particularly people in managerial positions, need to be more responsive to the personnel they deal with. In an all volunteer Armed Forces environment, there is enough mobility guaranteed by society to require the Armed Forces. The merits, to a great degree, are directly attributable to the style of management encountered by the individual. The key to providing satisfactory leadership is a thorough understanding of people, their goals, ambitions and preferences. A good knowledge of communicating will help in this understanding. Furthermore, a knowledge of the nonverbal as well as verbal aspect of communication is essential in developing this understanding.

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